SCHOOL LIFE

Official Journal of the . . .

OFFICE OF EDUCATION

Raising the Level of Literacy
JOHN E. FOGARTY

Early Admission of Able Children to School
JACK W. BIRCH, W. DAVID BARNEY, AND WILLIAM J. TISDALL

JUNE 1964

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Grants for training teachers of handicapped children

Next academic year (1964–65) many colleges and universities across the country will offer training programs for teachers of handicapped children through grants made by the Office of Education under Public Law 88–164. The law authorizes a program for the training of teachers for all types of handicapped children through scholarships, fellowships, and traineeships.

Grants made so far are for the training of teachers for five types of handicapped children. The kind of handicap, the approximate amount of the grant, and the number of institutions receiving grants are as follows:

Serious speech or hearing defects—$1.35 million to 71 institutions.

Serious visual defects—$500,000 to 14 institutions.

Mental retardation—$4.4 million to 108 institutions.

Emotionally disturbed—$1 million to 28 institutions.

The Office of Education has also awarded $3.2 million to 50 State educational agencies to train professional workers for the education of the handicapped.

In addition, the Office of Education has awarded $1.5 million to 46 colleges and universities for the training of teachers of the deaf in academic year 1964–65 under Public Law 87–276. About 252 graduate students will receive training. Public Law 87–276 will expire on June 30, 1964, at which time its provisions will come under Public Law 88–164.

Oversea study for language and social science teachers

The Office of Education has made grants totaling about $400,000 to 165 teachers of modern foreign languages and social studies for study overseas this summer or next academic year under the Mutual Educational and Cultural Exchange Act. The teachers are from elementary and secondary schools and colleges and universities.

Most of them—140 of the 165—

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SCHOOL LIFE
June 1964
Vol. 46 . . . No. 7

THEODORA E. CARLSON
Editor
ADA JANE KELLY
Associate Editor
CATHERINE P. WILLIAMS
Assistant Editor

School Life reports Office planning and action and publishes articles by members of Office staff; presents statistical information of national interest; reports legislation and Federal activities and programs affecting education. Published nine times a year.

Printing approved. Bureau of the Budget, August 23, 1961. Contents not copyrighted. Subscription: Domestic, $1.75 a year; foreign, $2.25; 1-, 2-, and 3-year subscriptions available. Single copies, 20 cents. Send check or money order (no stamps) to the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 20402.

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will study this summer. In groups of 15 to 25 the social science teachers will study history, geography, economics, and comparative government at universities in Tokyo, Beirut, Mexico City, or Nsukka (Nigeria). The language teachers—25 teachers of French and 30 teachers of Spanish—will study at the University of Strasbourg and the University of Costa Rica.

Programs for language specialists and students

Nearly 1,000 language students have received fellowships totaling more than $4.5 million for study and research this summer and next academic year. The awards have been made by the Office of Education under the Mutual Educational and Cultural Exchange Act and the National Defense Education Act.

About 120 specialists in foreign languages critical to the needs of the United States will study abroad under the Exchange Act. Among them are representatives of the 34 universities sponsoring language centers under the National Defense Education Act.

About 850 graduate students have received the NDEA awards for study in the United States. Although altogether they will study 58 neglected languages, about 70 percent of the students will study one of the major critical languages (these are the ones given top priority under NDEA: Arabic, Chinese, Hindu-Urdu, Japanese, Portuguese, Russian, and Latin American Spanish).

Civil Defense training for Federal employees

The ranks of citizens trained in the use of civil defense emergency methods will soon be augmented in many of our communities by Federal employees. The Assistant Secretary of Defense for Civil Defense and the Administrator, General Services Administration, have requested the heads of Federal agencies to encourage their employees to enroll in the free civil defense adult education course sponsored by local educational and civic agencies. The two administrators have also asked agency heads to develop and maintain self-protection organizations for use in emergencies, in line with agency responsibility for the protection of their employees and others who occupy the buildings they operate. By Executive order, Federal employees may follow civil defense education programs during working hours.

The Office of Education, under contract to the Office of Civil Defense, administers the adult education civil defense program and develops teaching materials for it. Local educational and civic agencies sponsor programs, usually through a local school.

OAS creates new department

The Organization of American States (OAS) has established an education department in the Pan American Union, its general secretariat. The work of the new Department of Educational Affairs will be to strengthen the capacity of the secretariat to carry out the 10-year education program of the Alliance for Progress. Several units of the Pan American Union, including the division of education and the exchange of persons unit, have been transferred to the new department.

Advisory council appointed for health professions act

The Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare has appointed a National Advisory Council on Education for the Health Professions. The Council will advise the Surgeon General of the Public Health Service on the administration of construction grants under the Health Professions Assistance Act of 1963. Members will serve 2-, 3-, or 4-year terms. They represent medicine, dentistry, public health service, nursing, teaching hospitals, osteopathy, optometry, pharmacy, and podiatry.

The act provides for a construction program and a student loan program. The construction program authorizes grants for building new facilities or expanding existing facilities for use in teaching the health professions. Student loans are made through public or other nonprofit schools for study leading to degrees as doctor of medicine, doctor of dentistry, or doctor of osteopathy. A National Advisory Training Committee, already appointed by the Secretary, advises the Surgeon General on the loan program.

Exchange agreement signed

The Soviet Union and the United States have signed their fourth scientific, technical, educational, and cultural exchange agreement. The latest 2-year agreement (1964–65) is similar to the one for 1962–63, but provides for a more balanced program and for an increase in the number of exchanges of representatives of industry, agriculture, medicine, and public health. It does not increase the number of exchange students.

In addition to officials of the U.S. Embassy in Moscow, the U.S. team of negotiators and advisers included representatives of the Department of State, U.S. Information Agency, Public Health Service, the Office of Education, and other organizations.

Iranian art exhibition

The Smithsonian Institution Traveling Exhibition Service has completed negotiations with the Government of Iran for one of the most important exhibitions it has ever brought to the United States—an exhibition containing more than 700 works of Iranian art produced over a period of 7,000 years.

The exhibition will open at the National Gallery of Art in Washington, D.C., this month. From Washington it will go to other galleries for 6-week displays—to the Art Institute of Chicago, William Rockhill Nelson Gallery of Art (Kansas City, Mo.), Museum of Fine Arts (Houston), Museum of Fine Arts (Boston), Cleveland Art Museum, Legion of Honor (San Francisco), and Los Angeles County Museum of Art.

Raising the Level of Literacy

It's a job for education but Government can help

JOHN E. FOGARTY

THE MEN AND WOMEN who are providing professional leadership for developing a society of literate persons bear a heavy responsibility. In this era of change, new demands for both quality and quantity are being placed upon American education. Today, as perhaps never before, there is no higher calling than that of the educator. It is to the educators and to our schools that the Nation looks for the structure and shape of our future.

Masters of reading skills face a special challenge of inspiring and stimulating both teachers and students to the full attainment of their potentials. Those who are serving our elementary schools provide the foundations upon which the whole house of education rests.

I address myself to educators on the subject of a great job begun—a job yet to be done—in American education. This job is to develop literate human beings who can effectively participate in our society, to raise the level of literacy in our Nation; for democracy depends on literate citizens. The educators are the experts who must provide the leadership for undertaking this task; I, as a representative in Congress, wish to seek ways to help them.

Mr. Fogarty, U.S. Congressman from Rhode Island since 1940, is nationally known as a friend of education and medical research. He has been cited for distinguished service by many national health, education, and business associations and by veteran groups. His article is adapted from an address he made to educators at a conference on reading, March 7, 1964.

In addressing myself to educators, I am reminded of a classroom tale.

An extremely nearsighted school teacher was rapidly losing his temper because many of his students had apparently neglected their lesson. "You at the back of the class—what was the date of the signing of the Magna Charta?"

"I don't know."

"Well, then, can you tell me what the Gordon Riots were?"

"I don't know."

"I assigned that yesterday! What were you doing last night?"

"I was out drinking beer with some friends."

The school teacher gasped, and his face went almost purple. "You have the audacity to stand there and tell me that? How do you expect to pass your examination?"

"Well, I don't. I'm an electrician, and I just came here to fix the lights."

Like the electrician, I may be ill-prepared to answer specific inquiries. But perhaps, like him, I can help to repair the lights, to cast illumination on a subject that concerns us all. This is one role the Federal Government can play in helping to solve the problems related to reading and literacy.

The Federal Government has been an active participant in research and development in a variety of fields, in some for many years. Modern agriculture, for instance, is deeply indebted to Government-aided research for many of its accomplishments. Government-aided research and development were greatly accelerated during and after the Second World War and with astounding success—especially in the medical, physical, and space sciences.

Now Government leaders are beginning to look at the educational, sociological, and economic problems of our society in a similar way. And they are encouraged by the people in and out of Washington who are asking what the Federal Government can do to translate sensible ideas in these fields into sound and effective action.

But whatever the action taken to raise the literacy level of our people, the interest and cooperation of teachers and administrators will be essential to its success. In fact, the job cannot be well done without their cooperation, for obviously the task is a difficult one. Month after month popular publications reflect not only the complexity but also the controversial aspects of teaching reading.

"Can Johnny read or can't he?" we are asked. Is he a better or poorer reader than children in his father's generation were? Should teachers use a "look-say" method, a phonics method, or some combination of both? I continually encounter words and phrases like "phonics," "phonetics," "phonemics," "the augmented Roman alphabet," and "the Bloomfield-Barnhart approach." If there is some confusion in the public mind, perhaps this is understandable, as there is, I hear, some question among the specialists themselves over the best phonics method—and how to use it and when to use it.

Now what can the Federal Government contribute toward solving this sort of problem? Judging by the success of just one federally supported program—the physics program of the Physical Science Study Committee—the Government can make an effective and productive contribution. For this program, the National Science Foundation provided funds which enabled an outstanding group of physicists and educators to develop a complete course in high school physics. After the group had developed course materials, its members cooperated, in institutes and workshops, to train teachers to use them. The total cost of this program was approximately $14 million, a fairly small investment considering

the benefits we are receiving: The physics program is currently being used by nearly 75 percent of all students receiving high school physics instruction in the United States; in a brief span of years, both the physics curriculum and the teaching of physics have been brought up to date.

Although there is at present no undertaking of this scope in reading, some notable studies are being made, and some accomplishments have been reported. One of my congressional committee responsibilities brings me in close contact with the cooperative research program of the U.S. Office of Education. This program has provided funds for a number of basic and applied research studies pertaining to reading. Here are six examples.

★ One researcher is studying the effectiveness of beginning the formal teaching of reading in kindergarten. Although some educators have argued for years that many children could be taught to read at earlier ages than they are now taught, no research has been conducted either to prove or disprove the point. The results of this study could be of great significance to reading instruction.

★ In another study, one already completed, the researcher compared children's language with the language used in textbooks. He found that the oral language children use is far more advanced than the language of the books in which they read.

★ A third study is on the language growth of children over a span of years, from the elementary school through the high school. This is the first such longitudinal study of language development ever conducted and it should give us useful information on how children acquire language and reading skills.

★ In a fourth study, the investigator is attempting to determine what communication barriers exist for culturally deprived children and what differences these barriers make in children's learning.

★ A fifth study is focusing on the problem of teaching illiterate adolescents how to read. If the researcher succeeds, his findings may eventually contribute to reducing the number of students who drop out of school. And he may well provide some vital clues to a solution of the overarching problem of adult illiteracy.

★ In a sixth project a group of researchers has undertaken an exploratory study of reading patterns among high school students. These researchers are trying to determine whether students who take special training in reading in high school will significantly increase their reading ability in various technical subjects.

In addition to these six exploratory studies, the cooperative research program is also supporting 11 curriculum study centers within the framework of its "Project English." Since the purpose of these centers is to develop curricular materials, reading is of immediate concern to each center. One of the centers, for example, is developing reading and language materials and teaching guides for use in junior high schools serving children from poor and culturally disadvantaged areas. Emphasis has been placed here because educators have found that materials currently available are usually unsuccessful with these children. Another center supported through "Project English" is developing a series of films on methods of teaching reading in the secondary schools. These films will be used in the training of teachers.

These studies, in which many educators are involved, form a firm basis for advancing our knowledge about reading. Moreover, plans for further studies next year are also impressive. The Office of Education intends, first, to support a number of field tests of first-grade reading programs in various parts of the country; second, to establish a study group to determine what basic research is needed in reading; and, third, to relate activities in reading to current developments within the various behavioral and biological sciences. Each of these efforts is directed toward a problem in reading.

These are the types of studies in reading which are being or have been supported by Federal funds. They also typify the kinds of projects which receive support from private foundations or colleges and universities.

At this point, it would be well to consider the nature and extent of the research now being done in reading, to ask whether our current research is sufficient to bring about desired and widespread improvement.

In weighing these questions, in finding a perspective on the magnitude of the task, we may recall the National Science Foundation's effort to strengthen the teaching of physics. This effort was vastly successful. But we might also reflect that in many high schools physics is not a required course, that in some it is not even offered, and that many students have no contact with it whatever.

In teaching our children to read, however, we are speaking of a central enterprise of education, involving every child who attends our schools. We are speaking of the need to develop what is surely the most valuable tool that education can offer.

The need to increase the reading skills of thousands, to elevate America's literacy level is so great that I cannot imagine how the present research, worthwhile as it may be, can possibly be enough to find successful ways of doing the job we must do expeditiously. As one who was involved in the development of our present high level of medical research, I am compelled to say that the educational community needs to begin a comprehensive effort to help children develop reading skills, that such an effort calls for support, and that the time for this effort and support is now.

If we are to have any hope of success, it cannot and must not be a minor effort handled by amateurs. The best minds in our Nation should be brought to bear upon it. It presents, in my judgment, a classic opportunity for schools, colleges, universities, publishers, and Federal agencies to join together in a project aimed at wiping out illiteracy as expeditiously and as effectively as our resources will permit.

Five or ten years ago, few people would have considered a Federal agency as a source of funds for such a project. But public education has changed, and today such a project would be eligible for funds from several Federal sources. The Cooperative Research Branch of the Office of Education, as one example, might well place its staff and resources behind a massive research study of reading. But no matter how it is supported, research on reading cannot move ahead without expert leadership. Educators must provide that leadership.

Now, what might result from the massive study which I have outlined? Generally, I would hope for a highly literate populace in the years ahead. Specifically, I would hope that as our young people become adults they would be equipped to share responsibility in the democratic process, trained to critically analyze issues in today's complex, fast-moving world, and prepared to take a proud part in the business and professional and cultural spheres of our society.

Are these goals beyond reach of our Nation, a nation which is about to put a man on the moon?

I think not. I think that our opportunity is now at hand to construct the sturdiest of foundations for American education and that this is the time and the place to begin.

School Library Reporter

RICHARD L. DARLING

Little published material is available on school library programs for handicapped and culturally deprived children. There are a few publications, however, that offer suggestions or guidelines for developing school library services for such children.

Among the publications available are two issued by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. A Children's Bureau publication, *Institutions Serving Delinquent Children: Guides and Goals*, sets forth standards for library services in training schools adapted from the standards of the American Association of School Libraries. It was prepared in collaboration with the National Association of Training Schools and Juvenile Agencies. An Office of Education publication, *The Visually Handicapped Child at Home and at School*, includes a chapter on sources of books and other instructional materials for blind and partially seeing children, a bibliography of such material, and a list of agencies helpful in developing collections of instructional materials.

In providing library materials for the deaf, librarians will find three publications of the Alexander Graham Bell Association for the Deaf, Inc., useful: *School Library Services for Deaf Children, An Annotated List of Filmstrips for Use with the Deaf*, and *Books for Deaf Children: A Graded Annotated Bibliography*. The first two are by Patricia Blair Cory, library and visual education director for the Lexington School for the Deaf in New York City. Although Mrs. Cory emphasizes special techniques for working with deaf children and the selection of appropriate materials, her basic philosophy of school library services for the deaf is applicable to service for other handicapped children. Her interpretation of the language handicaps of deaf children, for example, has meaning for the culturally deprived, who also lack experience with language.

An article in the October 1963 issue of the *Wilson Library Bulletin*, "Serving the Handicapped Child: Tropical Elementary School," by Amelae Bow, describes a library program that serves both the normal and the handicapped (blind, partially seeing, deaf, hard-of-hearing, orthopedically handicapped, or mentally retarded) children of the community.

Information on school library programs for culturally deprived children is particularly sparse. Two recent publications of the Office of Education, however, frequently mention school libraries: *Programs for the Educationally Disadvantaged* and *Improving English Skills of Culturally Different Youth in Large Cities*. These publications report on some of the programs large cities are sponsoring to help the disadvantaged.

Dr. Darling is specialist for school libraries, Library Services Branch, Office of Education.

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Early Admission of Able Children to School

The Warren Demonstration Project

JACK W. BIRCH, W. DAVID BARNEY, and WILLIAM J. TISDALL

THE RESULTS to date of the field demonstration project known as the Warren project supply additional evidence that able children, properly selected, can successfully enter school at an age earlier than the usual admission age. The project receives the support of the cooperative research program of the U.S. Office of Education, the University of Pittsburgh, the Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction, and the Warren (Pa.) school system.

Despite many favorable research reports on the consequences of early admission to school of carefully selected able children, the practice of early admission is not widespread. Admission age may vary from State to State, but not from child to child within a school district. Yet educators generally agree that the readiness of children for school varies and that these differences can be discerned even in preschool-age children.

Dr. Birch is a professor and associate dean and Dr. Tisdall an assistant professor at the School of Education of the University of Pittsburgh. Dr. Barney is a member of the faculty of the University of Auckland (New Zealand); in 1962–63 he was a visiting research professor at the University of Pittsburgh. *The authors gratefully acknowledge the cooperation of the superintendent of schools of Warren, Pa., Carl Whipple; his administrative staff; the Warren school board; and the teachers participating in the demonstration project. The research reported here is sponsored by the Cooperative Research Program, U.S. Office of Education.*

Many educators and laymen are opposed to early entrance programs because they lack sufficient or accurate information. Some cry out against the danger of "pushing" and of depriving the child of some of the joys of childhood. But early admission, when properly handled, does not involve pushing. Adequate selection procedures insure that the "whole" child is *ready* for school. Many able young children are happier in the more stimulating environment of the kindergarten or first grade than in their own homes. Children who are *not* admitted to school when they are ready may be *losing* some of the joys of childhood, chief among which is the successful accomplishment of tasks they are fully capable of doing.

One reason why the practice of early admission of able children to school is not widespread is that the public—and educators, too—know little about it. The few schools that have adopted the practice, notably the Brookline, Mass., school system, which has had a program since 1932, have received little public notice.

The Warren project has used a variety of communication channels to reach educator and layman.

Warren, a city of 15,000 in northwestern Pennsylvania, was chosen as the site because it combines many desirable features. It has a broad cross section of socio-economic levels and diversified industries. It is a well-established community and a county seat. Kindergartens have long been a part of its school system. Its educational and other community leaders are forward-looking.

The beginning of the project in the fall of 1961 was preceded by months of preparation. Arrangements for facilities and for community cooperation are much more an integral part of a demonstration than they might be in an experimental project.

Every effort was made to conduct the demonstration within the policies and practices of the Warren school system. The children were examined by psychologists employed by the district and the census data used were based on the work done by the home and school visitor. The district's committee on testing programs selected the achievement tests used. When external support for the project terminates, the school district should be able to incorporate the project into its normal activities.

The first step was to select the children. Using preschool census results, the superintendent invited the parents of all children in the age group eligible for admission to kindergarten in September 1963 to have their children examined by school psychologists during 1961–62. Of the 257 children listed in the census, all but 28 were brought by their parents for examination.

The school psychologists used the Stanford-Binet Scale and the Good-enough Draw-A-Man Test to determine each child's intelligence. Each child was also rated on his behavior and on his social and emotional maturity (one of the measures used to determine social maturity was the Vineland Social Maturity Scale), and his health was checked. Parents completed comprehensive case history forms and served as informants in the work with the Vineland Scale. All results were discussed with the parents.

The psychologists listed 37 children as *possible* candidates for early admission in the fall of 1962 because of their mental, social, emotional, and physical maturity. The children's intelligence quotients were generally 130 or higher (based on the Pinneau Revised IQ Tables); their social maturity was 1 year or more above the standard. On scales devised for the project, all

children were rated as having sound and well-developed personalities. All children met health standards, including those for height and weight.

The children who were tentatively selected visited neighborhood kindergartens, where experienced teachers observed their actions. A committee appointed by the superintendent of schools studied the observations of the psychologists and the teachers and made the final decision on which children were ready for school. It recommended that 26 children be accepted (10 percent of all the children originally considered, 11.6 percent of those examined). Their ages ranged from 3 years 8 months, to 4 years 8 months (September 1962).

Parents had the ultimate decision on whether children should enter, and the parents of 19 said yes. About half the parents accepting said they had decided to accept the recommendation because they had been impressed by the thoroughness of the evaluation and respected the advice they had received. Some accepted because they were aware that their children needed more stimulation than the home could give. Others were proud that their children were considered eligible and wanted to give them opportunities they had not had themselves.

In September 1962 these children were admitted to neighborhood kindergartens. All of them would have entered a year later under the usual admission practice. Each of Warren's six kindergartens had at least one child in each morning or afternoon session. Each child was treated as the regular pupils were.

The progress of the 19 was carefully but unobtrusively watched. When they were tested, other children in the kindergarten were also tested. The 19 were not ever identified for visitors, and their names were not given to the press.

Not all the children made perfect adjustments at first, but neither did all the regular pupils. But adjustments were no more difficult for those admitted early than for the others. On reading readiness tests given near the end of the 1962–63 kindergarten year the regular pupils ranged in percentiles from 0 to 99; those admitted early, from 29 to 99.

Different psychologists examined the children at the end of the school year. They found that the mean Stanford-Binet IQ's of the 19 children were stable, the mean difference being less than one-half of one IQ point from the original preschool testing.

All 19 children were promoted to the first grade. All but one are progressing satisfactorily, and that one comes from a broken and unstable home. Although the committee knew of this child's problem at the time they selected him, they judged him ready for school and had no evidence that deferment would eliminate his home difficulties. The committee believed, also, that the stabilizing effect of a daily kindergarten program might prevent more serious trouble.

To date, sociometric ratings indicate that those admitted early are not treated as outsiders by their older classmates. They are chosen as companions for activities as often as or slightly more often than regular pupils.

Elementary school teachers were initially less favorable toward the program than teachers in junior and senior high schools. Before the year was over, however, they showed a substantial change in favor of the program.

The Warren project's second group of children are now in kindergarten. During the school year 1962–63 the school psychologists examined 220 children who, the census showed, would be eligible to enter kindergarten in September 1964. Following the procedures used in 1962, they recommended 30 children for possible acceptance. Twenty-five visited kindergartens and were reported on by teachers to the selection committee. The committee invited the parents of 16 to enter their children in the project. Eleven were entered. None seems to be experiencing undue problems of adjustment.

The project also evaluates such matters as the cost of additional instructional and ancillary services, effect on the workloads of teachers and supervisors, participation required by parents, changes in educators' attitudes toward an early admission program, related professional work required, and the modifications in policies and practices of the school system resulting from the demonstration, as well as ways of communicating with the public about the program. Data collected to date suggest that a significant increase is in order in the amount of time spent in interpreting the school's admission policies and practices, both to the general public and to the teachers.

The Warren project is also identifying the psychologically and educationally significant attributes of many pre-school-age children in the community a year or more before they would ordinarily go to school. The investigation turns up information valuable to families, physicians, and school authorities.

The Warren school board is continuing the practice of early admission. Moreover, other school districts are increasingly aware of the Warren project and, consequently, of the possibilities of initiating early admission programs.

Schools should be flexible enough to adapt to the acknowledged differences in the developmental rates in children. The Warren project demonstrates that early admission to school for able children is one of the essential elements in a sound policy of admission to and progression through school. Arbitrary admission ages are as much a barrier to flexibility as arbitrary age-grade promotion practices and static curriculums.

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CARE photo

Operation Niños

GEORGE KROLOFF

THE MEAL may be only a glass of milk and a bowl of gruel, but for Juan it is the main reason he can read.

Today, and everyday, approximately 10 million Latin American youngsters like Juan are being furnished food—the abundance from U.S. farms — through Operation Niños. Operation Niños includes all child-feeding activities under the Food-for-Peace Program authorized by the Agricultural Trade and Development Act (P.L. 83–480).

Ten million children—that's more than one-quarter of the entire school-going population in the Alliance for Progress countries!

In the past year and a half, as a result of Operation Niños and its emphasis on school lunches, school attendance has gone up, scholastic levels have risen, malnutrition and its misery have been diminished. Many children have learned to smile.

During Pan American Week this year, April 12–18, the story of Operation Niños was told in schools throughout the United States. It is a story of concentrated effort by thousands of people, in North, Central, and South America, all working *para los niños*—for the children. It represents the spirit of cooperation on which the Alliance for Progress was founded.

Mr. Kroloff is public affairs consultant for Operation Niños, AID.

The Agency for International Development (AID) coordinates the United States program for Operation Niños, but many other U.S. Government agencies, such as the State Department, the Department of Agriculture, and the Food-for-Peace office in the White House, are giving their assistance. Other assistance comes from voluntary agencies, which are supervising a number of the child-feeding projects all over Latin America—from CARE, for instance, and from Catholic Relief Services, Church World Service, and American School Food Service Association.

Private industries and trade associations also are lending a hand. In Peru, for example, Great Plains Wheat, Inc., a U.S. trade association, is supervising a project in connection with AID in Leticia, a suburb of Lima. It is even providing a nutritionist.

The Latin American countries also are cooperating. They provide duty-free entry for the U.S. surplus commodities. Most of them contribute locally available food stuffs to supplement the imports; they also contribute equipment, money, staff, and other resources. Many persons on the scene, such as workers in the Peace Corps, give of their time and services; in many schools the mothers, in groups of three or four, prepare and serve the food.

Results of Operation Niños have been gratifying. In Santiago, Chile, a mother has been relieved to learn, for the first time in her life, that the anguish of hunger is not a normal part of existence. Her children are well-fed now; and although at first she was worried over the change in them, she rejoices now that their hunger pangs have been stilled.

In Pernambuco, a depressed area in northeastern Brazil, school attendance rose from 50 percent to 95 percent of the registered students after a school lunch began to attract undernourished children to the school. Many of these children gained 10 pounds in less than 3 months. But Pernambuco is not unusual: experience with Operation Niños in all parts of Latin America has shown over and over again that parents will send their children to school for a meal, and the children will willingly go, even if they have to take a dose of education along with it. High in the bleak Peruvian Andes, where many hunger-numbed children must walk for 2 or 3 hours to reach school, attendance has doubled since the lunch program began.

A spirit of local cooperation is spreading through many parts of Latin America as a direct result of Operation Niños. For example: Thirty underfed, underweight, undereducated Bolivian children living near Guayqui, 12,000 feet up in the Andes, face a brighter future because of a new school built by their fathers and ten Bolivian soldiers under the incentive provided by U.S. food. The builders mixed the cocoa-colored mud of the region with straw from nearby farms, formed it into bricks, and stomped stones evenly into the ground to make the floor. They were paid for their work in beans, flour, powdered milk, and cornmeal supplied under the Alliance for Progress.

One hundred other Bolivian schools have been constructed under similar circumstances. Next to each school is a garden plot which the students tend; it provides them with fresh vegetables and experience in farming.

Voluntary agencies are encouraging schools to have gardens for Operation Niños. CARE, for example, through its Seeds-for-Self-Help campaign, this spring has raised thousands of dollars in U.S. schools to help purchase seeds and garden tools for schools in Latin America. The idea of the gardens is now catching on, for gardens such as these add variety to the meals and teach the children the importance of well-rounded diets.

In El Salvador, Operation Niños is just beginning. The story of its growth there shows that a school can use to advantage the enticement of a meal; and it shows that many people are needed to work together to make the Operation a success. The program in El Salvador began last year as a pilot program conducted by the Catholic Relief Services. There, in areas of excessive poverty, where it was not unusual for an entire family to be crowded into a three-sided lean-

Number of children benefiting under Operation Niños, the program for feeding children in countries in the Alliance for Progress,[1] June 1962 and June 1963, and the number planned for by June 1964

COUNTRY	JUNE 1962	JUNE 1963	JUNE 1964
Bolivia	9,750	268,000	344,123
Brazil	579,500	4,038,500	4,906,628
Chile	359,608	757,700	779,140
Colombia	1,008,573	1,203,737	1,600,000
Costa Rica	.....	25,000	201,461
Dominican Republic	1,800	103,000	224,000
Ecuador	408,900	503,757	600,000
El Salvador	15,700	87,500	105,000
Guatemala	100,255	210,942	300,000
Haiti	91,000	60,500	105,000
Honduras	45,000	50,000	63,000
Mexico	654,990	1,144,990	2,000,000
Nicaragua	4,950	8,000	15,000
Panama	122,160	159,000	177,000
Paraguay	87,000	95,000	97,373
Peru	361,420	495,850	520,900
Uruguay	25,000	25,000	57,000
Venezuela	16,000	16,000	36,000
TOTAL	3,891,606	9,252,476	12,131,625

[1] Use of U.S. funds for Operation Niños is authorized in the Food-for-Peace Act (P.L. 83-480, titles II and III).

to, the Services distributed wheat and powdered milk for school lunches. The lunches attracted to the school a great many children who had not attended before or who had attended only rarely. Even during the summer vacation the pupils showed up for the daily meal.

Teachers took advantage of the situation and on their own time conducted classes in reading and writing.

This was no giveaway program. Women in the area donated their time and energies to help in the food distribution. The woman with the largest shack in the sector turned it into a storeroom for the supplies—which she personally protected—and used it as the kitchen. Another woman made 1,000 tortillas each day—by hand.

The Salvadoran program is now growing fast. A team of consultants from the American School Food Service Association has helped to mold a nationwide program, which began in February and which is already furnishing pupils in many schools with milk—the first milk some have tasted since they were weaned.

The plans call for feeding 105,000 Salvadoran children by the end of this June and 350,000 by the end of next June. Although the growing school lunch program is administered by Catholic Relief Services in cooperation with AID, the program is being carried out by the people of the country. Local committees have been organized to raise money for administrative expenses, transportation, warehousing, and kitchen equipment. The Government of El Salvador contributes $2,000 a month for transportation. Some of the administrative expenses are covered by a nominal charge for the school lunches—about a penny a day for those who can afford it.

School lunch programs in Latin America vary widely. In some communities, school lunches are prepared over an open fire in a mud hut. But in others the cooking facilities and serving equipment are as modern as any that can be found anywhere.

In many Latin American communities, especially in urban areas, new schools are going up that have modern teaching aids, well-qualified teachers, and other features that should attract pupils and send the school enrollment figures soaring. But even in these schools it is still the lunch that brings many of the children to school for the first time.

Take 7-year-old Maria da Silva of troubled Recife, Brazil. Her first day in the sparkling new Vasco da Gama school was an adventure more exciting than Disneyland is to most 7-year-olds in the United States. But not because of the bright building. Not because of the colorful classrooms or because of the trim and friendly teacher. To Maria none of these things were nearly as important as the school lunch—that wonderful lunch of meat loaf, tomato juice, cabbage, bananas, biscuits, and milk.

Not only is Operation Niños providing food, but it is helping give people a knowledge of sanitation and nutrition. In far too many of Latin America's rural areas such knowledge is lacking, and to counteract this lack Operation Niños has developed a concerted program to teach the teachers. School lunch administrators from several countries have conducted workshops on the best ways of providing nourishing and sanitary food.

The effect of Operation Niños has been felt throughout the Alliance for Progress—by every child who is being fed and by entire communities and countries.

The children are healthier and happier. They are attending school more regularly and, because they feel better and have more energy, they are acquiring more knowledge than their fathers have or their fathers' fathers had. U.S. food has helped to make the Alliance for Progress visible to people in even the most remote rural areas. Self-help projects begun in many Latin American countries in connection with Operation Niños are assisting programs under the Alliance to raise living standards.

And one day the United States should also feel the beneficial effects of Operation Niños. Today a generation of bread eaters and milk drinkers is growing up in Latin America. Tomorrow, as the several countries grow more prosperous, as the children now receiving Operation Niños food reach the consumer level of the middle class, the favorable results should be felt on U.S. farms and in the balance-of-payment figures.

It has happened before. A program similar to Operation Niños was mounted in Japan during the mid 1950's. The effort there, like the one in Latin America, began with U.S. support; but now it has been completely turned over to the Japanese. Japan early began to pay cash to the United States for the food supplements it received and today is the greatest export market for U.S. agricultural commodities. This, we expect, will happen also in Latin America, just as we expect the coming generation of Latin Americans to be healthier and stronger than the generation before them. Most Japanese teenagers today are a head taller than their parents, largely because of the U.S. milk which years ago became part of their diet.

But we need not wait for tomorrow's reasons to be glad over Operation Niños. We already have the best of reasons. All over Latin America the despair and listless depression of malnutrition are being replaced by hope. All over Latin America children are getting the energy to laugh and to learn.

Operation Niños clubs

Schools all over the United States are starting Operation Niños clubs and Operation Niños projects in their Spanish clubs. Working through the Pan American Development Foundation of the Pan American Union, these groups are raising funds to help Latin American boys and girls obtain basic classroom supplies. Many of the niños who have been attracted to school by the lunch program are now hungry for education, but they lack books, pencils, and paper. U.S. boys and girls, through their clubs, are helping to supply these needs.

USOE Cooperative Research

Research and the Training of Teachers

Lois S. Josephs, guest author of this month's column, is assistant professor of English at Carnegie Institute of Technology. Mrs. Josephs is associated with the Office of Education research program through her work with Carnegie's curriculum study center, which the Office sponsors.

WHY IS THE CONCEPT of educational research so neglected in the education of teachers? Admittedly, the most important aspect of any course in teaching methodology is the preparation of students for the realities of a classroom situation. But this emphasis, important as it is, is limited: it focuses the student teacher's attention on the success of one teacher in one particular classroom and gives him little time or opportunity to consider the teacher's problems in the larger perspective and to take the objective and analytical point of view that research encourages.

The student takes this attitude with him into his own classroom. Even if he becomes a successful teacher, he tends to think only of one situation—an attitude much too narrow to insure progress in our rapidly changing world. Somehow courses in teaching methodology must provide opportunities for students to grasp the importance of educational research. The teacher of teachers is therefore obliged to anticipate the time when the student has become a teacher and has grown enough to extend the narrow focus of one classroom activity to a larger segment of the world of education.

Judging from the ineffectual results of most lectures on teaching methodology, we may concede an even greater sterility to the lecture on educational research. Purposeless reading about this subject would be equally ineffectual. Assuming, then, that we learn to do by doing, it follows that students in a methods class will have the larger vision of educational research only if they, in some way, become involved.

Since it would be impossible for students to carry out authentic research projects in college classes, the next best plan is to have students write research proposals. This practice comes close to firsthand experience if teachers have the students use *Application Instructions for Research Contracts* (OE–12017), a manual issued by the Cooperative Research Program of the Office of Education. The manual gives clear and concise instructions on the method of writing a proposal, "provides information of a general nature, describes the application format, and includes a list of the evaluative criteria used by the reviewers."

Initially, each student should examine the whole manual. Although it gives instruction for writing six different kinds of research proposals, it seems wise to suggest, but not to demand, that students choose only one—the small contract format. Such a choice, though limiting in some respects, helps the student to narrow his focus and to have more control over his material. After reading the introductory section on the small contract program, the student is prepared to work with the details of the proposal. Temporarily ignoring *the abstract*, which should be written last, the student tackles *the problem*.

He sees that he should isolate the problem, as the directions ask for "a brief statement of the problem, explaining its significance to education." Because all of this is new to him, the student must discover what a problem in educational research really is. Previous work in the methods class should have prepared him for the mass of material that he must read. Out of this mass he must select a problem in his field that interests him—a problem that he can handle on a small contract budget.

At this point the student's research work changes. He has isolated his problem; but, again according to the instructions, he must find and organize *related literature*. Such a requirement demands a reorganization of some of the material that he has already read, a discovery of new material even more closely related to his specific problem, and finally an integration of material that may apply to his problem only indirectly or in part. Fulfilling this final part of the requirement on related literature demands objective research and, in addition, it demands subjective creative thought. As he proceeds with his proposal, more and more creative thought will be demanded of him.

The instructions next require the student, by now the researcher, to define his *objectives*. He must decide why his problem is important, what significance its results will have to education. Once the student has planned and organized his material in this section, he moves on to *the procedures*. Under the subhead "general design," the manual indicates what the researcher is to explain:

> Describe the general design of the study and indicate why this design appears particularly appropriate for achieving the stated objectives. In experimental research, for example, the independent and dependent variables should be stated with the rationale for their selection.

Some students may have to spend some time in learning about independent and dependent variables, but for the most part the work in this section will be an exercise in developing a creative attitude toward research.

Fulfilling the requirements of the sections on *facilities*, *personnel*, and *budget* as well as those on *procedures* helps the student understand the idea and practice of research. In addition, the manual supplies evaluative criteria by which he can carefully measure the details of his proposal before regarding it as complete.

I have used this plan with my students, and it works. With a research-

oriented rationale in my mind and with the Cooperative Research manual in the hands of my students in an English methods class, I turn them loose to write a proposal. Any confusion they feel at first soon evolves into an interest which steadily grows into thoughtful enthusiasm. The demands of the manual require thought; the enthusiasm grows with accomplishment.

My students have completed and reported on a number of research problems under such titles as "The Questionable Value of Teaching Vocabulary by Rote" and "The Relationship Between Reading and Writing Skills." This semester one student wrote a proposal on a new experimental method of teaching the blind that will go to the Cooperative Research Program of the Office of Education under the sponsorship of the Western Pennsylvania School for Blind Children.

Some of the students did not limit themselves to the small contract program. The students' extension of an idea to an even more complex research operation indicates that they have benefited from the experience of learning what research involves, that they have caught the wide vision of research in which many students discover the "effective surprise," which Bruner calls "the hallmark of a creative enterprise." In discussing this idea, Mr. Bruner says:

What is curious about effective surprise is that it need not be rare or infrequent or bizarre and is often none of these things. Effective surprises . . . seem rather to have the quality of obviousness about them when they occur, producing a shock of recognition following which there is no longer astonishment.[1]

Students feel an "effective surprise" in themselves in creating their proposals. They perceive the disciplined and creative activity of research—"the shock of recognition" in the discovery that education exists not only in the narrow interrelationship between student and teacher but in the concept of a larger creativity of the "effective surprise" of educational research. If we may assume that only a small number of students will, in fact, become researchers, we may also assume that most students will grasp the meaning of research as being, in a sense, "the shape of experience."

[1] Jerome S. Bruner, *On Knowing: Essays for the Left Hand*, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1962, p. 18.

Statistic of the Month

The less fortunate half

Each decade the Nation moves a little closer to the "line of equalization" in its expenditures for the public schools (see chart).

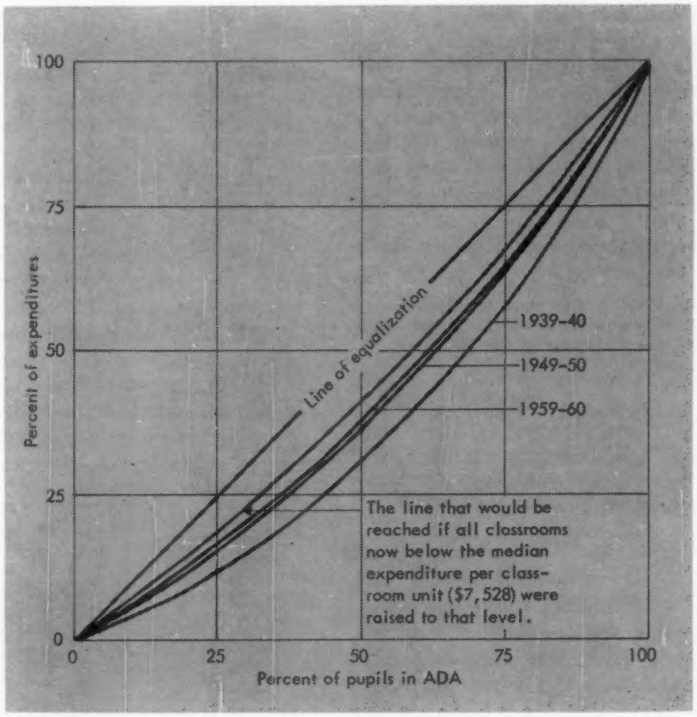
In 1939–40 one-half of the pupils in ADA—the half we might call the less fortunate half—got, roughly, only $30 out of every $100 the Nation spent for its public schools. The more fortunate half got the other $70.

By 1949–50 the less fortunate half were getting more—about $36.

In the next 10 years the trend toward equalization slowed down. But it didn't stop, and by 1959–60 the less fortunate half of the pupils were getting $38 out of every $100 spent.

The median expenditure per classroom unit in the public schools of the United States is $7,528; half of the classrooms get less; half get more. If the classrooms below the median were all raised at once to $7,528, the Nation would take a long step toward equalization, but certainly not long enough to give $50 of each $100 to each half of the pupils. There would still be a less fortunate half; and they would be getting about $41, or $18 less than the more fortunate half.

The chart is based on data from the Office of Education decennial study of expenditures per classroom unit.—Eugene P. McLoone and Forrest W. Harrison, specialists, school finance, Office of Education.



Decade by decade the Nation moves closer to equalization of its expenditures for the public schools.

SCHOOL BONDS

. . . sales, interest rates, et cetera . . .

By ELMER C. DEERING, *Office of Education specialist on the financing of school facilities.*

LONG-TERM AND SHORT-TERM bonds are much closer together now in average net interest cost than they were 5 years ago. The narrowing gap between these bonds, like the narrowing gap in interest rates between bonds of high and low ratings (discussed in the March–April issue of *School Life*), was the natural result of a general drop in interest rates, which began in 1959–60 and was not arrested until 1963. When interest rates are high, there is more room for divergence in rates than when the rates are low.

The narrowing gap in interest rates between long-term and short-term bonds is shown in the chart. In the first quarter of 1960–61 as much as 90 basis points separated the cost of bonds maturing in 25 years and the cost of bonds maturing in less than 15 years, but by the latest quarter for 1963–64 the difference had been reduced by 53 points, to only 37.

For most of the time shown on the chart, from September 1960 through April 1963, the general interest level was moving downward. For short-term bonds (maturing in less than 15 years) the quarterly average fell 27 points; for long-term bonds (maturing in 25 years and more), 69 points. In other words, when the trend was down-

Average net interest cost of Moody-rated bonds sold on primary market for public schools, by rating and by term of bond, for the latest quarter and month available.

Term of bond	Aaa	Aa	A	Baa	Ba	All rated bonds
	Latest quarter (January–March 1964)					
Under 15 years	2.86	2.63	2.95	3.19	.....	2.97
15–24	2.89	2.96	3.20	3.42	3.73	3.18
25 years and over	.....	3.18	3.24	3.46	3.88	3.34
All terms	2.89	3.02	3.21	3.43	3.85	3.24
	Latest month (April 1964)					
Under 15 years	.....	2.88	2.92	.....	.....	2.91
15–24 years	.....	3.09	3.23	3.42	3.79	3.20
25 years and over	.....	3.11	3.24	3.52	3.83	3.33
All terms	.....	3.09	3.20	3.49	3.81	3.24

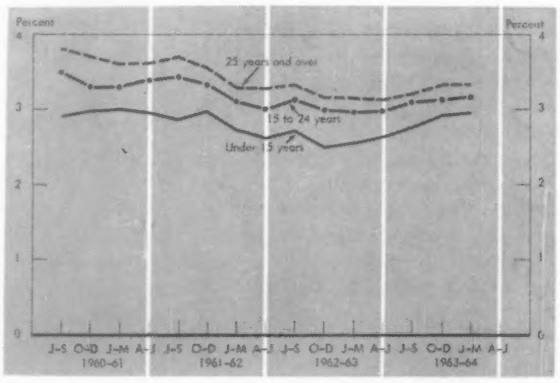
Source: Sales reported by The Daily Bond Buyer; ratings reported by Moody's Investors Service (rated bonds include from 75 to 80 percent of all bonds for public school purposes).

Average net interest cost of Moody-rated bonds sold on primary market for public schools, by rating only: Annual 1959–60 to 1962–63; monthly, April 1963 to April 1964

Period	Aaa	Aa	A	Baa	Ba	All rated bonds
1959–60	3.26	3.63	3.77	4.21	4.55	3.84
1960–61	2.82	3.34	3.43	3.75	3.97	3.48
1961–62	2.84	3.23	3.19	3.51	3.93	3.27
1962–63	2.64	2.86	2.99	3.29	3.72	3.03
1963						
April	2.73	2.87	2.91	3.21	3.53	2.92
May	.....	2.74	2.94	3.31	3.38	3.02
June	.....	2.99	3.03	3.36	3.58	3.14
July	.....	2.91	2.99	3.34	3.83	3.07
August	2.62	2.98	3.04	3.37	3.75	3.07
September	.....	2.96	3.13	3.33	3.76	3.19
October	2.76	3.05	3.18	3.38	3.73	3.18
November	2.89	3.14	3.25	3.46	.....	3.25
December	2.86	3.04	3.18	3.50	3.80	3.23
1964						
January	.....	3.05	3.21	3.46	3.81	3.25
February	2.85	2.87	3.13	3.38	3.80	3.16
March	3.00	3.08	3.28	3.47	3.88	3.31
April	.....	3.09	3.20	3.49	3.81	3.24

Source: Sales reported by The Daily Bond Buyer; ratings reported by Moody's Investors Service (rated bonds include from 75 to 80 percent of all bonds for public schools).

Average net interest cost of Moody-rated school bonds, by term of maturity, each quarter between July 1, 1960, and March 31, 1964



ward, the cost of long-term bonds did what it could be expected to do: it dropped faster than the cost of short-term bonds.

But for the rest of the time, from April 1963 to March 1964, when the general interest level was moving upward, the cost of long-term bonds rose more slowly (22 points) than the cost of the short-term (33 points). This change was contrary to expectation, but a clue to the cause may be found in the fact that between February 1963 and February 1964 the yields on short-term Treasury bills rose sharply while yields on long-term U.S. Government bonds rose only moderately.

AD Minutes Briefly noted--- for the busy School Administrator

Material for this department is prepared by the staff of the Division of Educational Organization and Administration

Measures to improve the education of children who live in slums are among the 16 principal recommendations put forward by a national committee on education. The committee found that in the sample of schools tested 79 percent of the slum schools had seriously inadequate buildings as compared to 40 percent in other areas; staff turnover was very much higher, and the educational attainment of the pupils in slum areas distinctly lower than in more favored neighborhoods. The report observes that the problem of finding teachers for the slums will not be solved merely by increasing the general supply of teachers, and it goes on to say that "adequate education in slum areas will always be expensive, more expensive than average. It looks to us as if it had often been less expensive than average, and therefore pitifully inadequate. It is time for a change."

The facts have a familiar ring to American educators; they are, however, from a recently published 300-page report of the Central Advisory Council for Education in England.

Transaction of the public's business in public is mandatory in California. According to the Attorney General, the holding of briefing sessions prior to board meetings is illegal under the Brown Act. That act states that board deliberations are to be conducted openly, that actions are to be taken openly, and that executive sessions can only deal with hiring, firing, and charges against personnel. In ruling on the matter recently, the Attorney General says, "An increased number of 'nonmeetings,' such as breakfast, luncheon, or dinner sessions, have tended to circumvent the ban on secret meetings. Deliberations and determinations made at these sessions make subsequent regular sessions a mockery."

The public's business will also be more public in Topeka, Kans. Although there is no legal requirement, the city Board of Education has decided to hold its second meeting of each month at one of the several schools in the city. Following the discussion of business items and the hearing of reports, the school system staff will answer questions from the audience.

New York City has been urged to attach a professional staff to the office of the deputy mayor-city administrator to evaluate, plan, and coordinate all of the city's youth programs in relation to the city's expense budget. The urging comes from the Institute of Public Administration after its year-long survey made under a contract with the city. In its survey report, the Institute argues for a professional program of planning and evaluation to deal with the massive problems of poverty and deprivation that confront so many children. As things stand, the work done in youth services currently costs a total of $1.6 billion annually and involves at least a dozen municipal departments and agencies. This represents more than half the city's current expense budget.

Despite this huge expenditure and large interest, the report says, major social problems affecting children and youth—poverty, racial discrimination, and unemployment—have not received the attention they deserve, partly because programs are not geared to meet current requirements, especially of low-income groups.

If the recommendation is put into effect, all the city agencies having programs for children and young people, including the school system, will very likely be encouraged to plan and coordinate their programs more closely under the authority of the deputy administrator and his staff.

In this year's University of Nebraska Regents' Examinations given to 5,737 high school seniors in the State, over half of the top 100 scorers came from the three largest school systems: Omaha, Lincoln, and Westside (an Omaha suburban district). The chairman of the State committee for the reorganization of school districts says, "The results show not only marked differences between small and large schools, but that the larger ones are pulling farther ahead all the time."

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"Welcome, Stranger!" Suggestions for Schools and Communities when Receiving Visiting Educators from Abroad, 1964, 7 pp., 10 cents (OE–14097).

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